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Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries

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The emblem of Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries (TCDC) displays a symbolic bridge joining the countries and people of the Southern hemisphere. The centre of the emblem — where the Southern, Northern, Eastern and Western parts of the world join — symbolizes a further and ultimate objective of TCDC: the promotion of truly global partnership for development.

On the cover

top left:
Indian and Ghanaian experts share experiences as part of the training at the Intermediate Technology Transfer Centre, Tema, Ghana.

top right:
Developing country airline cabin crew undergo emergency training at the Civil Aviation Training Institute, Hyderabad, Pakistan.

bottom left:
TCDC focal point meeting, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

bottom right:
Indonesian International Training Centre for Poultry Husbandry and Feed Manufacturing hosts foreign experts on a study tour.

inside cover bottom right:
Former president Julius Nyerere of Tanzania discussing the future of South-South cooperation during a visit to the Special Unit for TCDC.

■

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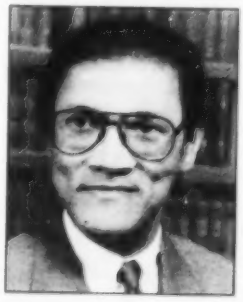
Message from the director

I am privileged to take up the reins of UNDP's Special Unit for TCDC at a time when TCDC is "off and running." Until 1990, developing countries focused almost exclusively on the promotional aspects of South-South technical cooperation. But the last three-and-a-half years have provided an opportunity and a challenge to enhance the utilization of TCDC in programme and project implementation. In recent years, we have also been able to better articulate our understanding of what TCDC constitutes, refine and reorient policies and focus more directly on the application and utilization of the TCDC modality.

During the 1990s TCDC has been reaffirmed as a priority theme for UNDP, and indeed for the UN system as a whole. ECOSOC Resolution 1992/41, General Assembly Resolution 48/172 and the adoption of the Strategy for TCDC for the 1990s by UNDP all attest to the strong commitment of the international community to the TCDC concept. This has prompted many of the UN organizations to evaluate their activities and policies and strengthen and expand their support for TCDC, as reflected in the report to the eighth session of the High-level Committee on TCDC in June 1993. More importantly, the main players in TCDC — the developing countries themselves — have unequivocally stated that "first consideration" should be given to the use of this modality in the implementation of their development projects and activities. And they have backed this strong show of support by committing more of their own resources to make TCDC a reality.

This special *Cooperation South* collection of essays provides accounts of successful cooperation activities and suggests how TCDC is poised to become an even greater force in the technical cooperation programmes of the future. For the reports on food security, rural development and poverty alleviation, and TCDC networks we wish to thank colleagues in the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO) who collaborated in their preparation. We are also grateful to UNIFEM, for the report on its unique food technology contest. Fulbright scholar Takao Kamibeppu speculates about TCDC's potential in the 21st century, while SU/TCDC's own Edward White explains how our newly revamped TCDC-INRES system has already begun to propel us towards the realization of that potential. Finally, we offer a special word of thanks to outgoing SU/TCDC Director, Abebe Ambatchew, who sums up TCDC's steady progress since Buenos Aires.

The reports make it clear that the advances achieved so far in both advocacy and use of TCDC have been considerable. Now we have reached the point where the main criteria for assessing progress in the future will be the extent to which developing country institutions, expertise and experiences are utilized for technical cooperation programmes, and the comparative advantage of TCDC is fully exploited. As Director of UNDP's Special Unit for TCDC, I share the view that TCDC can and will be a tremendous force for sustainable human development. By promoting an increasingly strategic role for TCDC in the development process, I intend to make it a "household word," not only within UNDP, but within the UN system as a whole. I invite you to join me in this effort.



Denis Benn
Director, Special Unit/TCDC

Enhancing food security through South-South cooperation

Building on past experiences, developing countries are making use of TCDC to cooperate in the vital area of food security. Recent activities are described by Ram Saran, former head of Food Security and Food Aid Policy Group, FAO.

Developing countries provide several examples of success in strengthening food security. Achievements have been realized through actions taken by governments to increase food production, stabilize the flow of food supplies and improve the access of the poor to food. The sharply contrasting food security situations of different countries, notwithstanding similar socio-economic and agro-ecological conditions in many of them, provide a strong basis for close and effective South-South economic and technical cooperation.

Differences in achievements in food production and other aspects of food security can begin to pave the way to collective self-reliance, although level of achievement is not the only factor determining the precise course of action to be followed. Equally important are development resources — primarily skills and technologies that different countries are able to share with others, and which can open up opportunities for concrete cooperation proposals. Fortunately, almost all developing countries, in the course of their struggle to reduce the incidence of food insecurity, have developed particular skills and capabilities which can be used to complement and support one another's efforts, to their mutual benefit.

This review focuses on the role of the diverse expertise acquired by many countries in enhancing food security. It examines Technical Cooperation Among Developing Countries (TCDC) as a tool in the vital area of food security, in particular, attempting to learn from past experience and exploring the broad types of activities that can lend themselves to TCDC.

Cooperative Achievements in Food Security

There is a growing awareness in developing countries of the need for greater efforts to increase collective self-reliance in food security — through regional or sub-regional schemes as well as through interested countries' own initiatives.

Many of the cooperative schemes in the area of food security have received the support of the international community. In 1979, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO) adopted the Plan of Action on World Food Security, which contained a section on developing countries' collective self-reliance. FAO has also been giving assistance to regional food security initiatives through its Food Security Assistance Scheme (for regional early warning systems) and other programmes such as the Desert Locust Programme. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) are among other organizations which have provided assistance — for example, for the training of personnel at the regional level.

The following are examples of successful TCDC initiatives in support of food security:

• **The SADCC experience** — The regional food security programme of the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC)[1] consists of fifteen regional projects. They aim to increase regional food production and availability; reduce post-harvest losses and foster food processing technology; reduce risks of food insecurity resulting from drought and other disasters; and improve the quality and range of information on food security available for use by planners, policy-makers, producers and traders.

The early warning system for the SADCC region, established in 1986 for five years and extended for another five years in 1991, concerns short-term changes in food security. The value of this system, which has received FAO support, was amply demonstrated when, late in 1991, the region was alerted to the probability that a serious drought was likely. This warning helped SADCC countries take timely action to ameliorate acute food shortages. The regional unit of the SADCC early warning system, located in Harare, Zimbabwe, has been providing technical assistance to national units, particularly in standardizing and improving methods of assessing the food security situation. Technical back-stopping has been provided to all the SADCC countries in the areas of agro-economics, statistics and agro-meteorology. The capacities of the national units have been strengthened and they are providing mutual assistance to

one another. The quarterly SADCC food security bulletin, a regular output of the system, received the close attention of policy makers, particularly during the drought.

Strengthened by a remote sensing component, the SADCC system has been organizing training programmes and expanding contacts between personnel in the regional unit and users of national units. Above all, every 10 days it has been distributing among national units, remote sensing information related to rainfall and specialized data enabling the units to assess the expansion of drought-affected areas.

While the reports of the regional early warning system constituted an important element in the coordinated regional response to drought, action had to be taken on many other fronts as well. It was necessary to regularly assess the region's food requirements and transport capacities, ensure smooth movement of food through the region's transport corridors, and prepare the region's appeal for aid to the international donor community.

For the Southern African countries it was possible to provide a regional focus for drought relief activities mainly because a regional food security programme and an institutional framework were already in place. This facilitated a regular exchange of information on food security situations and on technical know-how among member States. It also made it possible to provide technical assistance to national units in different fields, and to review resource mobilization and coordination issues.

There is a growing awareness in developing countries of the need for greater efforts to increase collective self-reliance in food security — through regional or sub-regional schemes as well as through interested countries' own initiatives.

• **The ASEAN and SAARC experiences in regional food security reserves** began when, in 1979, the governments of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)[2] set up a collectively managed emergency rice reserve of 50,000 tonnes (raised to 53,000 tonnes in 1985); established arrangements for replenishment and release of the reserve; and agreed to a regular exchange of information on national food supply and demand situations. At the same time, also aiming to achieve collective self-reliance in food security, the countries of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC)[3] established a food security reserve of 221,480 tonnes of collectively managed rice and wheat emergency reserves.

One positive outcome of the ASEAN scheme is that the Food Security Reserve Board, set up to supervise and coordinate the reserves, meets regularly to discuss export availabilities, import requirements, stock situations, common positions in international trade negotiations and research and development priorities.

• **The programme for improvement of food legumes and coarse grains in Asia through TCDC** is being implemented through cooperation among 14 countries under a UNDP/FAO-supported project for development of food legumes and coarse grains set up in 1983. This cooperative undertaking illustrates the validity of the TCDC concept as an instrument enabling the sharing of experiences among countries of the region. Under the project a mechanism for networking was created and a number of activities implemented. These included establishment of linkages with national coordinating committees; organization of training courses, workshops and country-level studies on technical subjects; and dissemination of information through newsletters. However the project's main contribution has been the exchange of germplasm, particularly of promising lines, among member countries, which has helped speed up national breeding programmes. It has also helped to multiply technology demonstrated to participants during study tours organized under the project.

• **Germplasm exchanges** between India and over 80 other developing countries are being organized by India's National Bureau of Plant Genetic Resources (NBPGR). This is an important contribution to the enhancement of food security through South-South cooperation. During 1990/1991, the NBPGR exported over 2,000 germplasm samples of plants including wheat, rice, maize, sorghum, barley, papaya and Napier grass to 48 countries; and received over 40,000 crop samples from 42 countries, including some of the promising varieties of maize from Mexico, rice from the Philippines, cassava from Egypt and sweet potato from Peru. The Bureau also organizes training courses on genetic resource management for personnel from developing countries and carries out joint expeditions to identify and collect germplasm. It shares its expertise and research findings with a number of international bodies. In collaboration with the International Board for Plant Genetic Resources, its scientists have participated in explorations in several other countries.

• **Asian equipment for use in Africa** — The transfer of small-scale equipment from Asia is a key element in an FAO-sponsored rice programme launched to boost rice production in the Sahel region of Africa. Farmers in Burkina Faso, Guinea, Mali and Senegal have been introduced to "push rotary" hoes and weeders for easy and fast weeding of paddies. The "Lo-Trau" stove, originally developed in Viet Nam, is also coming into use in African countries. The stove burns rice husks rather than charcoal or firewood. If widely adopted in sub-Saharan Africa, this stove could increase the use of rice husks, easily available at almost no cost, as a source of fuel.

TCDC Potentials in Food Security

A series of meetings on South-South cooperation in food and agriculture organized in 1986 and 1987 by the UNDP, the World Food Council (WFC) and other organizations led to the identification of a number of specific projects and programmes within the framework of TCDC.[4] These included such food security-related schemes as early warning systems; agricultural research data exchanges; stocking and post-harvest loss reduction programmes; the exchange of food production technology data; development of gene banks; and development of potato production.

A number of suggestions for technical and economic cooperation in food security were also put forward by participants at a Latin American Integration Association/FAO workshop organized in Uruguay in October 1993. These included: exchange of experiences in operating a food surveillance system; standardization of food products and food legislation; training in nutritional education; sharing of information on prices and markets; and financing and administration of food emergencies.

The South Commission report "The Challenge to the South" also suggests a programme of priority action for South-South cooperation. In order to secure longer-term food security, it lays emphasis on cooperation in agricultural research at the regional and sub-regional levels, including research into rainfed agriculture in dry areas and into pest control. Suggestions on other priority areas include: interregional cooperation to ensure that the techniques used effectively in some countries are usefully applied in other parts of the South; and pooling of resources on projects of common interest such as genetic enhancing centres and gene banks.[5]

While there is no question about the validity of the areas for possible cooperation suggested by different bodies, each country will opt only for those areas in which it can either offer its own expertise to other countries or benefit from the technologies available from them. But many such exchanges have not taken place as "... South does not know the South".[6] Many developing countries lack information on the countries with which they could exchange expertise for their mutual benefit. To facilitate the tapping of the TCDC potential of all developing countries what is needed is detailed information on the capacities and needs of each country in a global context. Such information is now being gathered by UNDP's TCDC-INRES[7] in cooperation with major UN agencies.

However, it has to be recognized that compilation and processing of detailed information on all facets of food security, country by country, is a huge task which cannot be performed by one single country. On the other hand, international organizations like FAO are ideally suited to collect and compile such information and serve as clearing-houses for its dissemination.

Improving capacities for foodgrain production is an important food security area in which FAO can assist developing countries in gathering information on capacities and needs of individual countries. A comparative picture of the yields obtained and technologies used by different countries can help in appraising their relative needs and capacities. But levels of yield and technology differ widely from country to country. In fact, there are wide differences between one agro-ecological class of land and another, and even from area to area within the same land class. For example, in developing countries (excluding China) per hectare yields are within a range of 0.3 to 5.6 tonnes for maize on rainfed sub-humid land; and 1.0 to 10.0 tonnes for rice on irrigated land.

In view of the above, analysis of the factors responsible for such wide differentials within the same land class is required. If socio-economic conditions appear to have a major impact, information on technology and yields would need to be collected not only by country and by land class, but also for areas with different socio-economic conditions within each land class. With such disaggregated information, each country would be able to compare its situation with regard to a grain crop with the situation of an area with similar agro-ecological/socio-economic conditions elsewhere, and to assess its capabilities and needs relative to those of others.

Another area in which many countries — particularly in Africa — need assistance is in the management of drought. Different countries have developed contingency plans to meet situations in which a lack of food security occurs as a result of drought. Some countries, such as India, have documented their drought management experiences, gained through such activities as contingency crop planning, water resource planning, mobilization of under-employed labour for public works construction and management of essential commodities. A manual, prepared by an international organization and containing different approaches countries have followed to mitigate drought, could serve as a guide to drought-prone countries during their food emergencies.

The above examples indicate the types of information that countries wishing to benefit from a TCDC approach to food security would need. Although the primary responsibility for implementing TCDC rests with the developing countries themselves, FAO and other concerned organizations can perform a catalytic role in enabling these countries to identify opportunities for TCDC in a global context. ■

1 SADCC encompasses Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.
2 ASEAN encompasses Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand.
3 SAARC encompasses Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.
4 WFC, "Regional cooperation and South-South cooperation in food and agriculture-addendum", WFC/1987/4 Add. 1, May 1987.
5 South Commission, "The Challenge to the South—the Report of the South Commission", Oxford University Press, 1990.
6 Ibid (5).
7 TCDC-INRES is the computerized information referral system of UNDP's Special Unit for Technical Cooperation Among Developing Countries. *See page 21.*

TCDC for rural development and poverty alleviation

Although integrated rural development remains complex and challenging, TCDC success stories are increasing. Jane Ross, a Rome-based writer, reports.

Over the past 25 years considerable progress has been made in bettering the living and working conditions of the rural poor in the developing world. Yet more than one billion people — over one-fifth of the human race — still live in absolute poverty.

Rural development requires adequate access to land, credit, production inputs, energy, education and training, as well as the creation of an institutional framework to benefit rural communities. This can only be achieved on a sustainable basis by the active involvement of local people, especially women and their organizations; sound monitoring and evaluation procedures; public information and education; and technologies uniquely suited to local needs. TCDC is a dynamic force in creating change, through countries' mutual exchanges of expertise, knowledge and skills. It promises to help ensure lasting rural development and poverty alleviation in the developing world.

Regional Centres for Integrated Development

While rural experiences may be country or location specific, and influenced by particular cultural, historical and socio-economic factors, developing countries can learn valuable lessons from each other's past successes and failures. This is true even when seemingly remote and different development contexts for areas with similar attributes are involved.

Regional centres for integrated rural development are essentially springboards for generating TCDC. They undertake widespread activities in support of national actions; act as service institutions for their member countries; and promote regional cooperation. CARDNE (Centre for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development in the Near East), CIRDAP (Centre on Integrated and Rural Development for Asia and the Pacific) and CIRDAFRICA (Centre for Integrated Rural Development in Africa) all provide a supplementary (rather than a competitive) role, supporting rural development through technical inputs, research, training and information dissemination.

CIRDAP is an intergovernmental and autonomous regional organization established in 1979 at the initiative of the countries of Asia and the Pacific, and with support from interested UN bodies and other donors. Based in Bangladesh, its prime concern is the alleviation of poverty in a region which, between 1980 and 1987, accounted for 63 per cent of the world's poor. CIRDAP helps member countries by working through ministries and coordinating institutions and has vital access to government policy makers, research and training institutes and NGOs. It acts as a bridge — between governments and people among the countries of the region, and between regions through sister regional centres with similar objectives. In February 1993, for example, Dr. A.M. El Sheikh, Director of CIRDAFRICA, visited CIRDAP in order to become acquainted with its operational features. During this visit he observed the Centre's various action research projects such as the Comprehensive Village Development Programme in Changini; conducted in-depth discussions with CIRDAP representatives, rural development cooperative and government officials; and visited the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC), the largest NGO working in rural development in Bangladesh. His visit turned out to be an important TCDC exercise, as the African Director expressed interest in replicating training and research concepts he observed in the programmes of CIRDAFRICA member countries, with inputs provided from CIRDAP/BRAC counterparts.

Essentials of the spirit of TCDC — equality, reciprocity and mutuality of interest — are reflected in the activities of the centres, from multi-sectoral training exchanges to the regular seminars, workshops and round tables held both within and across regions. Despite the fact that the Latin America and Caribbean area is not yet represented by an integrated regional centre, it has provided exemplary models in TCDC exchange, particulary through the recent programming exercise in the agri-food sector which took place in Buenos Aires, December 1992. Hosted by the Argentine government, this meeting brought together the

combined expertise of 22 countries from the region and three from other regions (China, Nigeria and the Philippines). It also achieved a high level of institutional collaboration, needed to strengthen national and regional focal points. Two hundred seventy project agreements were signed, not only with the host government, but between participating countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and countries outside the region. In one case, Nigeria plans to exchange experience in the formulation and implementation of rural development projects with Argentina, which will reciprocate by assisting the African country with oilseed and wheat research programmes.

Land

Rural development and the alleviation of poverty can only be achieved by giving people sufficient access to land. Land reform — whether it concerns use, tenure, or ownership — is a crucial issue for the growth of rural farm (and non-farm) employment and production, as well as for increasing much-needed income in the developing world.

The situation with regard to land reform varies among Asian countries. Although China, Laos and Viet Nam are all undergoing major changes in land ownership and cultivation patterns due to gradual decentralization, each country has taken a slightly different route in reorganizing land rights and restructuring production. As many of the recently introduced reforms have resulted in growth in the agricultural sector, national experiences represent possible models for replication. The CIRDAP-sponsored subregional workshop, "Land Tenure and Production Organizations of Agriculture in China, Lao PDR, Viet Nam and Some Selected Countries of Asia," held in Bangkok, Thailand, April 1993, succeeded in facilitating exchange of experience among participating countries that consider it necessary to develop a legal framework to govern access to and ownership and productive use of land in the region. This important meeting provided valuable cross-country exchange in land-use rights, market regulation and land tax, and resulted in a variety of recommendations for easier transfer of experience within the region. Dialogue was complemented by the presentation of case studies from countries with different socio-economic structures: the centrally-planned countries (China, Lao PDR, Viet Nam) learned how free market economies (India, Malaysia, Sri Lanka) tackled land reform issues.

The lessons drawn from this integrated cooperation could serve as models for replication throughout other developing regions — from the countries of Eastern Europe and the CIS to Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean — where vast populations of the landless, or nearly landless, exist at the poverty level.

Rural energy

Traditional sources of energy supply more than 75 per cent of the needs of rural communities in the developing world. Yet materials like fuelwood are increasingly scarce and the wide over-use of substitutes, such as dung and agricultural waste, has aggravated environmental degradation and thereby hindered sustainable development. Recent activities involving the transfer of equipment and techniques for the use of new and renewable energy sources to isolated rural areas offer notable examples of bilateral and interregional TCDC exchange in the fight against poverty.

Technology developed and adapted in one country can be transferred to suit socio-economic and ecological needs elsewhere. This concept is amply illustrated by the Indian NGO, Action for Food Production (AFPRO). Having successfully designed and promoted a model biogas digester at home, AFPRO has now adapted it for widespread use in Cambodia — a country in the process of re-asserting itself after two decades of upheaval and in serious need of stemming the adverse effects of deforestation. After experts from Cambodia studied the biogas system in India they invited AFPRO experts to their country for a wider demonstration of the concept, operation and management of biogas technology.

Amongst countries of the Latin America and Caribbean region, expertise in developing rural energy sources and technologies has been shared for many years. In 1981, for example, these countries formed the Technical Cooperation Network for Recycling of Organic Matter and Biogas for Rural Development, re-enforcing their capacities some five years later by securing technical cooperation with China — a leading player in biogas technology. China provided funds for an integrated training course in Asia, as well as paying for internal travel, living and translation expenses. Significantly, the hosts ensured that all available technical and bibliographic information on biogas development was translated from Chinese into Spanish, ensuring wider dissemination.

Today, Latin America and Caribbean countries continue to foster national and interregional skills in rural energy development through activities in such areas as gasification (Brazil and Costa Rica) and the use of small hydropower plants (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia and Peru). Furthermore, the region is seeking to reinforce these capacities at the policy level. At the same time, through the FAO-sponsored Regional Working Group on Energy Planning for Sustainable Rural Development (GLARES), countries are working together to create a systematic strategy and regional plan for rural energy issues. The plan calls for direct support for national initiatives and seeks collaboration with regional

and international bodies. A recent workshop in Buenos Aires and a follow-up meeting in Mexico succeeded in opening up inter-governmental negotiations and a far-reaching agenda for cooperative action is underway. Countries in the region have already agreed to assist one another with appropriate training, research, evaluation, information flow and technology.

Credit

Rural credit plays an integral role in development and poverty alleviation, yet according to a recent FAO estimate, only five per cent of farmers in Africa and 15 per cent in Latin America and Asia have any access to formal credit. For many years, the rural worker was perceived as "high risk" and denied full credit, banking and insurance services because of a lack of collateral and the high transaction costs involved in granting loans. Recent development projects however, have illustrated that with appropriate mechanisms credit for the poor can make economic sense, with high rates of re-payment recorded and the resource base of rural banks preserved intact.

Developing countries share common social and economic features and inter-country and interregional technical cooperation in agricultural credit has now assumed greater importance in rural development.

The Regional Agricultural Credit Associations (RACAs), representing diverse financial institutions, have become catalysts in promoting rural credit and financial services through information exchange; problem-oriented research; staff exchange; consultancy services; technical consultations; and mutual technical cooperation.

AFRACA (African Regional Agricultural Credit Association) is presently collecting basic data on the role and type of collateral presently used on the continent in order to propose alternative, reliable arrangements. Under AFRACA's TCDC programme three officials of the Agricultural Finance Department of the Central Bank of Nigeria were sent on attachment to the Agricultural Finance Corporation (AFC) of Zimbabwe to study how that institution's lending programmes affected the small-scale borrower. The Association also exposes members to banking practices of other regions. On a recent two-week tour, AFRACA representatives studied the "linkage process" — a participative banking scheme with an emphasis on savings — in action at the Landbank of the Philippines. African observers were impressed by the smallholders' enthusiasm for the scheme and institutions' outstanding 90 per cent improvement in loan recovery. They have now implemented activities based on this concept in Burkino Faso, Nigeria and Zimbabwe.

In another coordinated project, AFRACA sent representatives from three of its member states (Lesotho, Tanzania and Uganda) to India to study training of agricultural staff in rural financing. This three-stage initiative was led by consultants from the Indian NABARD (National Bank for Agricultural and Rural Development) who visited Africa to identify training areas, provided training of African trainers in India, and visited pilot training programmes in Africa. In the TCDC spirit of true partnership and cost-sharing, NABARD, AFRACA, FAO and participating banks pooled their resources to meet the costs of accommodation, travel, salary, materials and daily subsistence allowances.

NENARACA (Near East and North Africa Regional Credit Association) promotes similar concepts of interaction through its Multilateral Exchange of Training and Experiences (METE), through which members' travel costs are met by participating institutions while accommodation fees are met by host institutions. The organization also undertakes systemized problem-oriented research throughout the region, focusing on modernizing and adopting appropriate technology. This helps establish a strong core of local expertise while keeping member countries abreast of current approaches, methodologies and developments. Information on these is further disseminated by NENARACA's bi-annual newsletter, which includes a regular column on common agricultural credit terminology in Arabic, English and French. This information, supplied by bulletins and manuals of specialized international organizations, helps broaden regional comprehension of credit.

Services

The employment and income of rural workers depends on the adequacy and timely supply of agricultural services. However, poor infrastructures and weak delivery mechanisms often deprive rural areas of goods and services essential for survival, ranging from food to agricultural equipment, and from training to health care.

Although small farmers account for nearly half of the farming household population in Asia, they remain dependent on inefficient systems of support and are essentially isolated from the decision-making process that affects their livelihood. However, a recent five-day regional workshop, "Organization and Management of Agricultural Services for Small Farmers in Asia (OMASA)," held in Bangladesh, June-July 1992, worked towards empowering the small farmer and enhancing individual and collective self-reliance. Thirteen representatives of Asian small farmers shared experiences with high-level experts, policy makers, field agents and researchers from the region, addressing problems in agricultural services. This unique meeting, organized by CIRDAP in collaboration with FAO

and the Commonwealth Secretariat, collated case studies from regional activities, assessed the effectiveness of services in reaching the farmer and considered related issues such as credit, marketing, training, extension, and supply of inputs and implements. A number of recommendations were made towards inter-country collaboration in devising a strong delivery infrastructure, including a consortium arrangement for linking institutes such as universities and research agencies.

In an important follow-up initiative, CIRDAP member countries have now set up a three-year pilot project based on these proposals. It is tightening up coordination among institutions working in extension, education, training, credit, supply, marketing, post-harvest processing and storage, as well as among researchers, field agents and farmers.

While rural experiences may be country or location specific, and influenced by particular cultural, historical and socio-economic factors, developing countries can learn valuable lessons from each other's past successes and failures.

Extension

Extension services provide the rural poor with much needed information on improved practices, new techniques and technology, marketing, supply and distribution. Implementation of the TCDC concept can help modify, strengthen and create extension systems suited to particular needs and resources of isolated rural areas.

This was reflected in the collaborative measures introduced by the 1988-1991 UNDP/FAO-supported project on root crops systems development, which linked 12 Pacific island countries in efforts to enhance food security. Extension activities were undertaken via regional, subregional and national programmes involving small farmers, extension agents and other government staff at all levels. Local people were afforded an active role in the extension activities: farmers and groups representing women, religious organizations and young people were mobilized and encouraged to adapt new practices on their own farms. This departure from existing extension practices ensured that the transfer of knowledge and skills was relevant and that performance could be monitored. The flexible inter-country information flow among islands facilitated dissemination of up-to-date national and international published research and inspired the formation of societies for sustainable crop system development throughout the region. Furthermore, important permanent interregional linkages were established between institutions. For example, the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, Ibadan (Nigeria) and the International Centre for Tropical Agriculture, Cali (Colombia) plan to provide the latest improved varieties of cassava, potato and yam to the tissue culture facilities of the South Pacific Commission and the University of the South Pacific, the institutions responsible for the distribution of disease-free material within the region.

These extension activities — regional, subregional and national — have established a sound basis for information networking within countries and between countries and international, regional and subregional institutions. This plays an important part in designing future training, study tours, fellowships and seminars which enhance technical cooperation in rural development amongst poor island nations around the world.

Organizations

Rural organizations, such as cooperatives, rural workers' groups and agricultural trade unions are a vital means of support for the poor, and a potent force in the design and implementation of policies, programmes and projects in rural development. Representing small holders, entrepreneurs and farmers at the grassroots level, these rural organizations are assuming even greater importance in countries undergoing decentralization and shifting policies in favour of the private sector. However, the basic structure of numerous such groups, particularly cooperatives, needs to be strengthened, as many were created "from the top down" with little genuine member participation and limited subject coverage.

In the spirit of TCDC, Asian cooperatives are presently evaluating potential means for collaboration in the region, which has a wide variation of experience in this area. A recent programming exercise at the Asian Regional Office of the International Cooperative Alliance (ICA) allowed cooperatives from diverse rural sectors to present a compendium of requirements to governments and UN agencies. This so-called "capacities and needs survey" — the first ever compiled in the region — called for short-term expertise, training, equipment, feasibility studies, joint ventures

and study tours to implement programmes on a TCDC basis. One positive step resulting from this interchange was the creation of the Network for Development of Agricultural Cooperatives in Asia and the Pacific (NEDAC), which functions essentially as a forum for information exchange among representatives of governments and cooperative institutes. At the recent NEDAC workshop, held in Beijing, October 1993, it was agreed that collaborative activities in 1994 should focus on legal and policy reform. Interaction among various rural organizations has enhanced working relationships with cooperatives in the region. It has also provided essential input for the future network of agricultural cooperatives planned by the FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.

Farmer-to-farmer contact

Informal technical cooperation among farmers is a valuable step in forging national and regional confidence in capacity-building.

In 1985 around four million Indonesian farmers and fishermen sold a share of their cash crop to finance urgent projects for their African counterparts suffering the effects of drought and famine. Thus, a strong collaborative partnership was established as Indonesian representatives visited the African continent to witness first hand the effectiveness of the projects they financed. This special relationship became more formalized when a group of 10 African farmers was invited to Indonesia in 1991 as guests of local farming families. While there, they worked together with their hosts and toured local institutions and projects in Java and Bali to observe agricultural productivity and farm management practices.

Both parties are now in regular correspondence, which serves to enhance mutual understanding and harmonize technical cooperation interests.

Women

Of the estimated one billion people living at or below the poverty line, nearly 60 per cent are women. As both producers and providers, women play a key role in all aspects of the development process. High priority is given to providing them with access to credit, agricultural inputs and marketing assistance, as well as to involving them in decision-making and project planning and execution. The FAO Plan of Action for the Integration of Women in Development, for example, aims to incorporate gender issues in policy, programmes and projects, and to encourage governments to include more women at the decision-making levels within and between countries.

However, the real extent of women's contribution to the rural economy is rarely, if ever, reflected in most official data in the developing world. This effectively hinders any progress in formulating national strategies for women. The Expert Consultation for Country Coordinators for Women in Agriculture in the Near East was one of several positive, inter-related steps taken towards collecting regional information for developing a Policy Framework and Regional Programme of Action for Women and Agriculture in the Near East (RPAWANE). In a region where women account for 60-70 per cent of the agricultural workforce, few institutional mechanisms exist to ensure gender considerations are incorporated into the policy and implementation process. In the spirit of TCDC, Consultation participants drew on multi-disciplinary opinion, mobilizing analytical and organizational expertise from a wide range of national coordinators, UN organizations, NGOs, WID specialists and representatives from national, regional and international organizations. They reviewed ideas presented and suggested an outline for the framework, targeting achievements and sharing different concepts for a truly participatory approach. It was recommended that all levels (national, regional and global) and sectors (private and public) be utilized to collect data and mobilize technical and financial support for the completion of country papers. This collaborative effort provides national and a regional synthesis of women's participation and will contribute substantially to the reports planned for the Fourth World Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace, to be held in Beijing, China, September 1995. ■

Statistics in this article are taken from FAO Economic and Social Development Paper, 113.

TCDC networks: powerful tools for self-reliance

Increased support for network development is paying dividends as links among Southern institutions grow. Diana M. De Marco, a former FAO staff member, reports.

A key factor in the promotion of South-South cooperation is the ever-growing number of networks that are increasing exchanges of experience, research and technical knowledge among development workers, groups and institutions throughout the South.

For many years, global corporations have marketed the products they sell to the industrialized world throughout the poorer regions of the world, creating needs, dependencies and dreams. But technological dependence is a formidable obstacle to any kind of socio-economic and, indeed, human development. Crucial to the development of any society is its ability to acquire the knowledge, skills and technologies that will enable it to build capacities to meet its real needs.

Where financial resources are limited, inter-country and inter-regional dialogue and exchanges at the personal, group and institutional levels are the most realistic ways of stimulating the kind of development that will build those capacities, and at the same time, keep the process within the control of the people concerned. The essential character of a TCDC network is this emphasis on greater self-reliance.

Since the early 1960s, networks have proven to be cost-effective vehicles for the coordination and upgrading of research. They are also effective in carrying out training programmes and have provided the *fora* for lively and stimulating exchanges of knowledge and information. They have helped members discover which technology and what expertise they require to solve their specific problems, as well as how and from where those services can be obtained at minimum cost.

Today, throughout the four developing regions of the world, TCDC networks cover almost every aspect of rural development. They are steadily expanding mutual support and collaboration among a diversity of people and institutions with a wide variety of interests but a common major concern: the urgent need to develop their rural areas, to break the grinding cycle of poverty and stem the exodus of fisher folk, farmers and foresters to the shanty towns and *bidonvilles* of already strained and overcrowded towns and cities.

Networks' variety and scope

A technical cooperation network is a voluntary cooperative arrangement involving institutions or individuals in two or more countries. Some networks have been supported by various UN agencies over a period of years but many are now mobilizing contributions from their members and other donors. They are increasingly taking the initiative in selecting, planning and implementing their own activities and thus moving towards fuller self-reliance and greater independence of action.

Associations with a formal structure, such as those for credit and marketing, usually establish a constitution or have a similar agreement with a management committee. Members pay contributions and the group's work programme frequently includes issuing publications and newsletters, organizing meetings for the exchange of information, and conducting study tours and a wide range of training activities.

Less formal networks are designed to facilitate the development of technical approaches and exchanges of information through joint activities of a continuing nature, such as adaptive research trials. Participants work within an agreed plan and make contributions in kind. They cover part of their own costs but do not pay formal membership dues.

Even more informal associations are set up for a relatively short period of time in order to undertake specific activities more limited in scope. They provide the framework for coordinated research and studies in a number of countries, while at the same time mobilizing and motivating the participating national institutions.

State-of-the-art global information networks such as the independent, inter-governmental fish marketing service INFOFISH, and AGRIS/CARIS, the largest agricultural information system in the world, are an important source of the ideas and information that are essential to the transfer of appropriate technologies. They can also identify the expertise available in countries and areas with common interests and pinpoint potentials for productive cooperation.

Asia: cooperation for productive farming

Productive farming calls for technical knowledge, the money to buy better seeds, fertilizer and pesticides, and the right tools to speed up and improve preparation of the land, tillage and harvesting. The farming family must also process and store their produce and, in due course, move it to the market place. To achieve all this they need working capital.

Often large-scale farmers are able to provide at least part of this capital out of their own resources. They may also have access to bank loans on reasonable terms. But commercial banks do not lend to the poor. The small-scale producer is therefore faced with an urgent need for credit.

It is estimated that small-scale farmers make up more than two-thirds of the farming households in the Asia and Pacific region. Their main source of loans is the ever-present moneylender whose usurious terms vary from 20 to 300 per cent a year. The moneylender maintains a hold over the farmer that enables him to purchase the fruits of his debtor's labour at a very low price. More often than not, he grants the loan merely in order to acquire the land by dispossession when the farmer cannot pay.

Following a proposal by a regional seminar on agricultural credit for small farmers, the Asian and Pacific Regional Agricultural Credit Association (APRACA) was set up in 1977 with the support of FAO to help free the region's small farmers from crippling debt.

APRACA is a unique association of governments and parastatal and non-governmental organizations directly involved with agricultural credit, and of training institutions and groups promoting agricultural credit and banking indirectly.

Headquartered in Bangkok, the Association consists of 55 members from 19 countries. The leaders of APRACA place great emphasis on financial autonomy and have made a conscious effort to formulate polices and programmes which generate adequate resources from member institutions. Costs are shared, with regular expenses met out of membership fees and programme costs covered by funds raised for particular purposes. Programmes involve the active participation of members and are based on real needs.

The members identify requirements for technical assistance, pinpoint the technical expertise available in various countries and disseminate this information widely. The Association conducts frequent surveys, maintains up-to-date information on agricultural credit and banking facilities in the region and promotes the exchange of country profiles and success stories. It conducts training programmes for middle level and senior executives of agricultural and banking institutions and carries out intensive studies of agricultural banking systems that could be adapted to members' specific needs.

Among many successful action projects, APRACA's Rural Savings Mobilization Programme has had far-reaching implications in the region. Most of the Association's member institutions were created by their governments in order to provide cheap credit to farmers. In many countries this meant they could not take deposits as their funds came largely from those governments. But slow recovery of loans, and a limit to fresh governmental funds, made APRACA's members take a serious look at rural savings as a source of money. Motivation for the programme came from studies carried out in the Republic of China where the Agricultural Bank of China and the Rural Credit Cooperatives financed rural development entirely from funds contributed by the rural people.

Studies of macro-level programmes promoting rural savings took place in 11 countries throughout Asia. Based on these studies, a regional workshop on the mobilization of rural savings was held in Manila with 45 participants from 28 institutions in 16 countries taking part. The workshop sensitized policy makers in the agricultural banking institutions to the potential of rural savings to ensure a flow of credit to agriculture and emphasized the prime importance of the participation of the rural people themselves. A joint programme of action was then drawn up by APRACA and successfully carried out.

Throughout the four developing regions of the world, TCDC networks cover almost every aspect of rural development.

Africa: bold marketing concept

The African continent is facing the world's most intractable food problems. It is the victim of a colonial inheritance that emphasized production of cash crops for a world market economy rather than greater availability of food for the African population. With the passage of years Africa has seen the gradual breakdown of the delicate balance between the physical environment and traditional social structures on the one hand, and increasing populations and the use of new technologies on the other. Faced with a deteriorating food situation and the need to feed a rapidly growing number of people, particularly in the urban areas, the improvement of food marketing systems has assumed great importance.

In March 1989, a Network and Centre for Agricultural Marketing and Training in Eastern and Southern Africa was established in Harare, Zimbabwe. The five-year project covered the host country as well as Kenya, Malawi, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia.

The concept of setting up the Harare Centre and establishing a network for agricultural marketing training in five countries in very different stages of development was a bold one. It was justified by the importance of agriculture in the countries concerned, their declining economic performance in the 1980s and a worldwide trend towards greater emphasis on the private sector.

Structural adjustment programmes, a lessened reliance on parastatals as the primary marketers of agricultural produce, fewer price controls and reduced protection generally had stimulated the need for rapid change in the structure of marketing institutions, and in marketing methods and skills.

A major constraint to improved marketing in the five countries was the lack of trained personnel. Training was therefore singled out as the pace-setter and catalyst for sustainable programmes. But

resources were limited and it was difficult to provide training on a country-by-country basis. The pooling of efforts through a network of close technical cooperation proved to be the most economical way of forming effective marketing specialists. In addition, overburdened staff and the stretched resources of existing centres were released for other important activities.

The project's objectives were ambitious but highly relevant. The five countries involved were in different stages of commercial agricultural development and the capacities of their institutions and the capabilities of their labour forces varied widely. The project's regional orientation and multi-institution focus meant that it could symbolize different things to many different people. Sound project design and management were therefore critical.

Three regional and eight national workshops brought together policy makers to review and discuss issues of common interest. Topics covered included maize marketing, financing for marketers, management of transport, export procedures, post harvest operations, marketing management in the horticulture sector, marketing management for cooperatives, the effects of structural adjustments and trade liberalization on marketing institutions and on life in the rural areas, and the management of modern information systems.

The project produced some 30 training and teaching manuals and helped develop new *curricula* and lecture materials for the study of marketing. The output of printed materials was prodigious and reflected almost all the activities undertaken over the project's five-year life span.

Over 200 government, parastatal and university personnel trained by the project are now running their own workshops, adapting, exchanging and using the teaching materials to meet their own needs. The Harare Centre is well established as a regional centre of excellence for training in agricultural marketing from which it is hoped to expand the network's activities to more countries throughout the region.

Near East: small ruminant research

In the harsh and exhausted natural environment of the Near East, sheep and goats provide the rural poor with animal protein, energy and income and are less destructive than many other livestock. They belong mainly to the smallholders, the pastoralists and the landless — the less privileged members of society with little or no access to extension staff, animal health centres, credit, banking or marketing facilities.

Over the years, these small but valuable animals have been largely neglected by development planners. Today, following recommendations by the Near East Commission on Agriculture, Cyprus, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Morocco, Pakistan, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey and Yemen have formed the Near East Regional Research and Development Network on Small Ruminants.

The network belongs to the participating countries, which are gradually assuming responsibility for the coordination of inter-country activities. Each institution plays an active role and makes scientific contributions to the extent of its means.

Since 1992, collaborative research projects have included programmes to improve reproduction among indigenous sheep and goats, their strategic feeding and nutrition and the production of goats' milk, as well as studies of small ruminants within local farming systems.

Results of the network's research show that sheep and goats constitute an unexploited but important resource within the region's food systems. Little capital would be needed to improve production of these animals but considerable research and extension efforts would be required.

The Near East Network plans to expand its research programme in this area, and to stimulate exchanges of farming and extension methods. Goals for this cooperation are to raise the standard of living of the rural poor, to help halt desertification and to preserve and improve the region's rapidly diminishing ecosystems.

A regional project based on TCDC methodologies has been proposed to strengthen and extend the network's training activities. To cover future needs, this would include the training of junior scientists in specific techniques.

Latin America/Caribbean: exchanges by the thousands

Agricultural and rural development networks have been very active in Latin America and the Caribbean. Today, 23 networks cover 33 countries with nearly 400 participating national institutions. The majority of the participants are public technical agencies associated with universities and private enterprises.

Making use of their technical, human and financial resources, Latin American and Caribbean institutions participating in the networks have demonstrated the immense potential for increasing food security in the region.

Under the auspices of the networks, thousands of exchanges have taken place, covering many aspects of agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Concentration has been on problem areas where exchanges can produce the best results. For example, workshops and training activities have covered agro-forestry systems, neonatal diarrhoea, roots and tubers, income-generating projects for women, fish processing, sea-moss culture, grain storage and integrated pest control. A wide range of published material reflects the 23 networks' wealth of accumulated knowledge and valuable experience.

Networks as agents of change

In a world fraught with animosities, punishing local wars and civil strife, TCDC networks are making possible a continuing dialogue among many hundreds of people across the world.

From the Andes to Indonesia, the sharing of problems, common needs and mutual aspirations is fostering understanding, breaking down barriers and bringing together people from many nations and walks of life. They share the struggle to improve their lives and the lives of those around them. As agents of change the networks have a vast potential and a momentum that is unlikely to be turned back. ■

Andean women and food technology contest

A unique competition has identified successful women's enterprises and facilitated an exchange of experiences among Latin American women. UNIFEM staff member, Ilse Marks, reports.

It is estimated that in the Andean region of Latin America, women produce, processand sell close to 80 per cent of their nations' food products and run 70 per cent of the small enterprises. Yet they have little or no access to land, credit or technical support. To highlight the fact that women play a key role in promoting food security and developing small business, in 1992 a Latin American network of individuals and organizations working to promote informal education for women — the Women's Network for Informal Education, or REPEM, according to its Spanish acronym — organized the first women and food technology contest. The contest was co-sponsored by the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).

This regional competition attracted 51 women's groups engaged in a wide range of activities, from agricultural production to agro-processing, distribution and marketing. A women's group from the community of Calhua Chico in central Ecuador's Tungurahua Province won the Ecuadorean national award. This group, selected out of 17 participants, was rewarded for its successful cultivation of highland crops and fodder on terraced land, using ancient indigenous farming techniques that helped prevent erosion. By using worms to produce fertilizer and employing aromatic plants as natural pesticides, the women were able to limit the use of chemicals. Not only did they bring about diversification and high productivity in a limited area, they also established a community shop that enabled them to generate substantial income.

The women came together as a mothers' club trying to improve the nutritional status of their community by starting simple kitchen gardens. Encouraged by agricultural experts, they began farming on land provided by the community. Now they grow a wide range of crops and have a nursery of indigenous species and a vegetable seed bank to help families that want to start their own gardens. Group members report that working together has helped them rise above their poverty. They consider their group a school and plan to continue training people in their community as well as outsiders.

The regional award went to an indigenous women's milling and baking group in the central highlands' village of Palian in Peru. Here the women used the award to build themselves a better oven, and to improve their packaging and labeling. They also decided to use part of their prize for a vist to the winners of the national awards in Colombia and Ecuador.

The three Peruvian women, from a remote mountain village, who made the journey had never imagined that they would meet women from other developing countries with whom they could share their experiences and expertise. Thanks to their visits they have expanded their knowledge. From the peasant women in Ecuador they learned how to use worms to produce fertilizer, how to dry vegetables and how to set up a tree nursery. From the Colombian women they learned a great deal about raising guinea pigs, commonly used for food locally, and about producing specially formulated fodder and marketing the animals. The Peruvian women also exchanged information with their hosts about how they had produced nutritious flour mixtures from local cereals and protein-rich legumes and used these mixtures, in combination with indigenous fruits, to make candy bars, sweets and various bakery products. They explained how they had turned their activities into a profitable business that improved the community's diet, created additional jobs and stimulated agricultural production. They gave the women in Ecuador and Colombia "kiwicha" (amaranth) seeds and discussed how to grow this Inca grain, which is more nutritious than wheat.

In addition to sharing technical information and seeds, the women took the opportunity to talk about their strategies to cope with the inequalities they encounter as women, and with their heavy workloads at home, in the community and in their small enterprises.

Thus, the first Andean contest made it possible to identify successful women's enterprises, and to facilitate an exchange of information and experiences among grassroots women in Latin America. Given its success, REPEM has decided to organize a second regional contest in 1994. UNDP's Special Unit for Technical Cooperation Among Developing Countries (TCDC) recognizes the importance of highlighting and disseminating women's knowledge and experiences and has agreed to contribute to this initiative. ■

South-South cooperation in the 21st century

Takao Kamibeppu explores the evolution of relations between developed and developing countries and examines the implications for future South-South cooperation. Mr. Kamibeppu is a Fulbright Scholar with the Program in Intercultural Management, School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont, USA.

If the world were divided into the North and the South, three combinations of cooperation would be possible: North-North, South-South, and North-South. (A fourth combination, South-North, is emerging as an option which deserves greater attention as the North seeks cost-effective, innovative and appropriate solutions to economic and social problems which have been successfully tested in the South. However this essay will be limited to an examination of the first three combinations.)

The first one, North-North cooperation, is the most active and advanced. Particular measures are therefore not needed to strengthen it further. The third one, North-South cooperation, usually takes the form of development programmes and technology transfer. Relationships tend to be one-sided, with cooperation flowing from the North to the South because of the overwhelming power of the former. Such cooperation, while still quite active, has come under increasingly critical focus as development professionals examine lessons of the past and explore more effective options for the future.

The second combination South-South cooperation — or Technical Cooperation Among Developing Countries (TCDC) — appears to be the least active among the three types. However it possesses the greatest potential for sustainable human development, as well as national and collective self-reliance. This article will look into TCDC from the perspective of North-South relations.

The 1970s were years of self-confidence and hope for a promising future for the South. Accordingly, there was considerable optimism about the future success of South-South cooperation. The "oil shock" of 1973 and the adoption of the resolution on the New International Economic Order (NIEO) by the United Nations General Assembly in 1974 indicated that the influence of the South over international economic relationships was increasing. However, the South's newly articulated assertiveness may have been more vocal than substantive. Perhaps its positions were merely "tolerated" at the time because the industrial countries were afraid of a damaging confrontation with the South after the oil shock and wanted to keep dialogue open in order to assure a regular and inexpensive supply of oil. Thus, when the fear of a shortage of oil disappeared, the North paid little attention to the NIEO.[1] In the early 1980s, the Southern countries and the Eastern communist bloc strongly supported the creation of a New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) to equalize the world flow of information, which had been predominantly one-way, from North to South. The South also felt that information flows were one-sided, conveying messages that were generally negative and critical of the developing world. The call for a NWICO was a hostile challenge to the North's cherished value of a free press (albeit a press that usually seemed skewed to show the South's glass "half-empty" and the Northern glass "half-full.") In fact, this "threat" contributed to the withdrawal of the United States and the United Kingdom from the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which had approved the NWICO.

Although an attempt to alter the information flow between the South and the North was made, little effort was expended to increase the information flow *within* the South. To this day, the amount of information that flows between the North and the South far exceeds that flowing South-South.[2] Unfortunately, developing countries have to collect information about other developing countries through Northern channels.[3] The 1980s was a period when most countries in the South had to put higher priority on the domestic front than on South-South

cooperation, owing to the urgent need to put their own houses in order to cope with the debt crisis. Also, in most developing countries there was meager public support for cooperation with other developing countries internally.[4]

The above examples indicate that attempts by the world community to increase the South's influence in international exchanges have had minimal impact on North-South relationships. In fact, the South Commission observes that Northern dominance has even been a constraint to South-South exchanges: "It is not uncommon for them (the North) to try to block new South-South economic connections by planting doubts about the capacity of intentions of prospective partners in the South."[5] Nevertheless, development has advanced, and education has been expanded, more rapidly among the developing countries that have cooperated with each other in diverse areas. These countries vary greatly in terms of the levels of development achieved, however; while some have made tremendous progress, others have failed to see their economies take off. South-South cooperation must therefore take different approaches so that each country receives what is appropriate at its particular stage of development.

Since the end of the Cold War there has been a general decline of interest in North-South issues.[6] With a shift in perspective prompted by a mixture of "aid-fatigue" and self-interest, Northern donors now consider Eastern Europe as a new (and more promising) "third world" — a new destination for development assistance. Accordingly, the share of development aid received by the "old" third world is declining. Some African development professionals have referred to the ascendancy of Eastern Europe among the North's development priorities as "Africa's Berlin Wall." East-West relations are receiving new attention within the North, while the South seems to be left far behind, receiving little attention.

However, the North may soon be forced by factors beyond its control to become very interested in the South once again. Susan George points to the enormous importance of environmental factors. "Whether or not you like it, greenhouse gases do not respect frontiers or hemispheres," notes Ms. George. "The threat to the environment may eventually force the North to take a greater interest in the real issues in the Third World. At the same time it should be noted that the South can no longer play the East-West conflict to its advantage."[7]

South-South transfers of technology are generally more appropriate than North-South transfers when countries with differing economies and ecosystems are involved.

The 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), which took place in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, emphasized environmental security — a kind of security partly influenced by conditions in developing countries. According to James Gustave Speth, Administrator of the UNDP, achieving it will require narrowing the widening gap between the haves and the have-nots — a matter affecting North-South relations.[8]

It is clear that the threat to the environment is a global concern that has to be addressed jointly by South and North. Environmental problems that affect countries beyond their borders need to be addressed by cooperative solutions. Unfortunately, mistakes made by the North have sometimes been exported to the South and various environmental problems have been caused in Southern countries that adopted inappropriate Northern development styles.[9] South-South transfers of technology are generally more appropriate than North-South transfers when countries with differing economies and ecosystems are involved. Environmental cooperation among developing countries with shared climatic and natural conditions would be desirable. However, it was the North that generally took the initiative in defining the international agenda on environment during the UNCED process. Unable to agree upon common positions in the crucial pre-negotiation period, the Group of 77 only began to negotiate as a block at the final stage of conference preparations. If the countries of the South had worked collectively earlier in the process, the South would have gained a better position in negotiating with the North on environmental issues.

At a time when economic problems are forcing many donor countries to reduce their foreign aid programmes, the countries of the developing world are facing the need to manage their aid more cost-effectively. So far the South's various attempts to alter the fundamental patterns of the North-South relationship, politically and economically, have not been successful. While the North has given some limited support to the strengthening of South-South links, it has never done so to the extent that Northern power is reduced. There has consistently been a serious disparity between the South's voice in internationally approved documents and the concrete actions undertaken to implement their recommendations. Moreover, it appears that future attempts to alter the North-South relationship will not be easily realized. Indeed,

developed country attitudes are increasingly noticeable among the newly industrialized countries (NICs) of the South. Samir Amin points out that the economic relations between such NICS as Hong Kong, Singapore and the Republic of Korea and other third world countries resemble North-South relationships. Some South-South relations will be just as unequal as North-South relations as certain Southern countries accelerate their development, leaving their neighbours behind.[10] "Dominant-non-dominant" relationships will be present in both North-South and South-South exchanges. This means that dividing the world into North and South no longer has any significant meaning.

In terms of the impact of UNCED, Adam Schwarz argues, "If there is to be a breakthrough on how the environment is treated, developing countries say, it must begin with a new attitude towards economic relations between the world's rich and poor countries. Developing nations want environmental issues to be linked with economic development, the GATT process, more technology transfers at affordable prices, new definitions of intellectual property rights, and large infusions of 'green' aid."[11] These perspectives must be reconciled with the priorities of the North, which calls for the South's self-reliant initiatives and reasonable collective action.

Seen in this context, the end of the Cold War and UNCED seem to have upgraded the significance of South-South partnerships and TCDC modalities. TCDC now promises to enable the developing countries to concentrate on their important areas for mutual give and take, and initiate exchanges they themselves can control. On environmental issues, which affect all countries, South-South cooperation will succeed if it is organized to collaborate in partnership with, rather than subordinated by, the North. At the same time, TCDC will be very useful for former Eastern bloc countries that wish to absorb new relevant technologies from the South. In any case, South-South cooperation will be key in identifying ways to make development sustainable in the South.

Ultimately, the success of South-South cooperation depends on the intentions of both the South and the North. The South Commission has underlined this fact, noting: "The experience of the last few decades of South-South cooperation demonstrates that it is the vision, will and commitment of those directly involved, and especially of the top political leaders of the South, that proved to be crucial factors in the success or failure of initiatives in cooperation."[12] ■

1 South Commission. 1990. The Challenge to the South: The Report of the South Commission. New York: Oxford University Press.
2 Ibid.
3 Ibid (1).
4 Ibid (1).
5 Ibid (1).
6 George, Susan. 1990. "Creative Alliances Between North and South," Socialist Review, July-September 1990, v20, n3, Berkeley, California: Center for Social Research and Education (pp. 17-19).
7 Ibid (6).
8 Speth, James Gustave. 1993 "A Post-Rio Compact" World Scientists' Warning Briefing Book. Union of Concerned Scientists. Cambridge, Mass. (pp. 265-273)
9 Gomez-Echeverri, Luis. 1992. "The Earth Summit and the Role of the South" Cooperation South. April 1991. New York: UNDP (pp. 6-7).
10 Ibid. (10).
11 Schwarz, Adam. 1993. "Looking Back at Rio 'Give us trade, not aid': environmental values vs. economic growth" Far Eastern Economic Review, 28 October 1993, v156, n43; Hong Kong: Review Publishing Company Limited (pp. 51-53).
12 Ibid (1).

TCDC-INRES reinvents itself

TCDC-INRES is a unique computerized registry of developing country institutions and the resources they offer. It promotes and facilitates TCDC by gathering and updating this information and distributing it to developing country governments and development institutions. Edward C. White, Principal Information Officer, SU/TCDC, describes how the system has been upgraded.

Two activities in which TCDC-INRES has been engaged during the last 12-18 months are now beginning to bear fruit. The first was a concerted effort to update the information in INRES and to register new institutions. The second was the complete redesign of the INRES software, including the development of new software "products" to modernize the system and improve its usability.

In May 1994 the Special Unit for TCDC commenced shipment of the long-awaited "INRES-Lite" software package to government focal points for TCDC in developing countries, UN agency TCDC focal points and UNDP Resident Representatives. Unlike the earlier decentralization of INRES, which was carried out on a limited experimental basis during 1990-1991, the new dissemination of the INRES database will be conducted on a wide scale. In fact, INRES-Lite has been specifically designed as a software package for wide distribution. Its release represents a quantum leap in making the INRES information widely available and easily accessible.

INRES-Lite is a version of the TCDC-INRES database built upon the Folio Views "infobase" software. It is distributed in a special runtime version of Folio Views known as Previews. A major innovation of the infobase concept is database publishing. Instead of remaining hidden away in a vault, under the watchful eyes of technical specialists, the database is "published" in the form of a large, fully formatted document accessible via special infobase software. As such it is suitable for wide distribution and can be easily used without highly specialized training. Available in three languages (English, French and Spanish), the INRES-Lite infobase contains details on all 4,000 institutions registered with INRES. These institutions are located in over 100 developing countries. They offer some 13,342 training programmes and 4,374 projects they are undertaking are listed, demonstrating the wide range of expertise and technologies which they can provide. By making use of infobase technology INRES-Lite not only makes it possible to maintain this voluminous data on the types of microcomputers commonly found throughout the world, but provides an ease of use and speed of search which are unique.

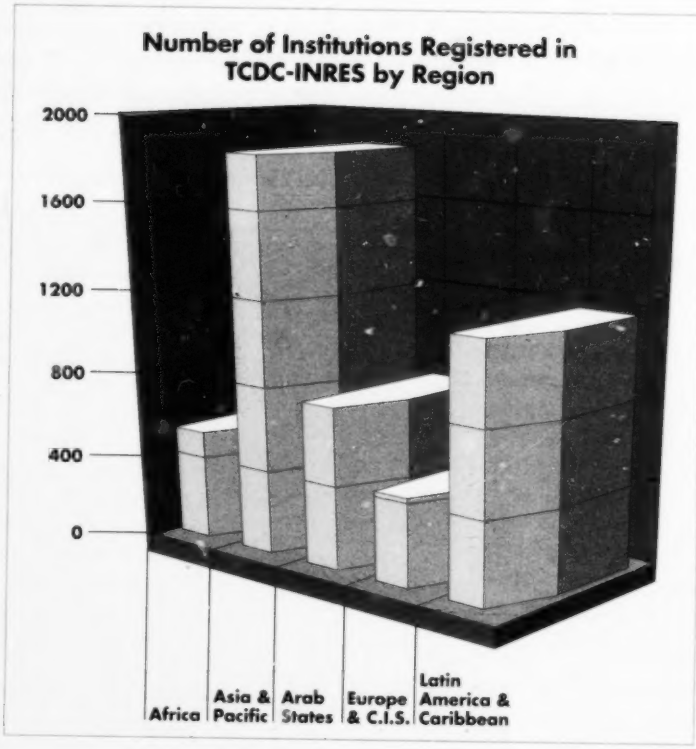
By making use of infobase technology INRES-Lite not only makes it possible to maintain voluminous data on the types of microcomputers commonly found throughout the world, but provides an ease of use and speed of search which are unique.

One of the reasons for selecting Folio Views software for development of INRES-Lite was its availability in both Microsoft Windows and MS-DOS versions. The Windows application endows INRES-Lite with all the advantages of the graphical user interface (GUI), which is rapidly becoming the standard computer interface: ease of use, highly readable fonts, a WYSIWYG (what-you-see-is-what-you-get) display, "buttons" to activate different information views or software functions, drop-down menus, multiple on-screen windows that are moveable and resizeable, and the ability to switch easily from one application to another.

Unlike most other software packages, however, INRES-Lite/Previews packages

also make all these advantages available to DOS users, who share with Windows users access to a single infobase format.

The information in INRES was gathered by national consultants funded by the Special Unit for TCDC. These consultants, working under the supervision of government coordinating authorities and the general guidance of UNDP Resident Representatives, collect data on institutions which meet the broad guidelines established in the TCDC programming document for the utilization of UNDP special programme resources (SPRs) during the 1992-1996 programming cycle. The data is entered on computers at the country level, making use of a software package provided by INRES, and is then sent on diskettes to New York for entry in the master system.



During the present updating campaign 2,250 institutions have had their information updated or been newly registered. Another 1,750 institutions were carried over from earlier systems. SU/TCDC anticipates that the distribution of INRES-Lite will not only increase use of the system but also generate new enthusiasm at country level for keeping it up-to-date.

The Special Unit for TCDC is also undertaking a more limited distribution of INRES Version 3.0, a full function version of the master INRES database which is of special interest and usefulness to institutions serving as INRES cooperating locations. These include regional and subregional organizations and some of the UN specialized agencies. Based on the MS Access database management system for Microsoft Windows, INRES 3.0 offers easy data entry and editing capabilities, formatted output of compendia of country capacities, sophisticated search and retrieval and data export functions. This system was also distributed to cooperating INRES locations during May.

Finally, in response to the continuing demand for on-line access to INRES, preparations have now begun to offer access to INRES data on the Internet, along with access to the other data-bases that UNDP has already made available via its Internet gateway.

System requirements. The DOS version of the INRES-Lite system requires an 80286 or compatible machine with at least 2 mb of RAM (4 mb recommended), 15 mb of free hard disk space, an EGA or VGA display, DOS 3.1 or higher and, preferably, a mouse. The Windows version requires an 80386SX or higher computer with at least 2 mb of RAM (minimum of 4 mb recommended), 20 mb of free hard disk space, a VGA or EGA display, DOS 3.1 or higher, Windows 3.1 or higher, and a mouse. INRES 3.0 (Microsoft Access) is a Windows-only application for which the recommended minimum hardware is a 386DX, 33mhz computer or higher, with at least 8 mb of RAM. ■

Chart by Ed White

INTERVIEW

TCDC: Yesterday, today and tomorrow

Abebe Ambatchew, Director, UNDP Special Unit for Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries (SU/TCDC), from January 1991 through May 1994, assesses TCDC's progress to date and prospects for the future.

CS: *The TCDC modality has gone through a period of transition during the past three years. Could you describe the important elements of this transition?*

AA: One of the constraints to applying the TCDC modality has been in identifying what constitutes an activity that utilizes TCDC. For too long, our understanding of what major features should characterize TCDC activities has remained vague. TCDC was generally understood to mean any kind of cooperation as long as it involved two or more developing countries. This constraint has affected not only the wider use of TCDC, but the assessment of progress and reporting.

In accordance with developing countries' own definition of the spirit of TCDC, and the guidance they have given, it has now been agreed that the main features constituting TCDC are as follows: TCDC activities involve the sharing of experiences, expertise or facilities among two or more developing countries; participating countries share the cost burden for cooperation activities or mobilize the required resources; the activity is initiated and managed by the developing countries themselves; the arrangements for remunerating the experts involved are provided within the spirit of mutual help and are less costly than traditional technical cooperation.

Hence, TCDC is essentially a cooperation modality in which a number of developing countries pool their resources and expertise for their mutual benefit and to avail one another of the relevant know-how they may have. It is very important that these features exist in what we call a TCDC activity. Otherwise, we will have the same situation as in the past when the traditional type of bilateral cooperation or exchange was loosely described as TCDC. Today we have a better articulation and understanding of what we mean and want to do in TCDC.

I should add that there is also greater diversity in types of activities, more intensive sharing of lessons learnt, and better appreciation of TCDC's comparative advantage.

CS: *What are the prospects for a greater realization of TCDC's potential as a development cooperation strategy in the 1990s?*

AA: Judging from the increasingly strong commitment of developing countries to TCDC and the priority they attach to it, I am certainly very optimistic for the future. TCDC is a form of cooperation that encourages the sharing of the relevant, less costly and tested know-how and expertise available in the South.

There are also other important measures that augur well for TCDC which have been taken recently after extensive debates in ECOSOC, in the High-level Committee for the Review of TCDC, and in the governing bodies of UNDP and other UN organizations.

The two most important re-affirmations of TCDC's continuing high priority are ECOSOC Resolution 1992/41 and the Strategy for TCDC in the 1990s. The ECOSOC resolution calls on all partners in the development effort to give first consideration to the use of the TCDC modality in programme and project development and implementation. This decision is viewed by many as the best manifestation of how developing countries, as well as developed countries, perceive the importance of this form of cooperation. The second measure is the adoption at all levels, including an endorsement by the General Assembly, of the Strategy for TCDC in the 1990s. The Strategy is a flexible one that focuses attention on the main measures and elements which should facilitate and help in the application of TCDC. It provides a broad framework that will be adapted to particular needs of countries, regional or subregional groupings.

Another consideration which portends well for TCDC is the existence in developing countries of institutions and capacities of the highest standards and quality, and the recognition and confidence of the developing countries that they have a lot to offer that can be of help to one another.

Let us not forget also that the decline in resources for technical cooperation from traditional sources makes it necessary for the developing countries to look into their own capacities and institutions through cooperation and mutually advantageous efforts. It may sound exaggerated, but there is no doubt that TCDC is the future form of cooperation on which developing countries will largely rely.

CS: *Even before the Buenos Aires Plan of Action (BAPA) was approved in 1978, there was universal agreement on the validity and importance of TCDC, but its widespread use has lagged behind expectations. What are the hindrances to greater use of TCDC and how are these obstacles being overcome?*

AA: The constraints to the wider use of TCDC have been the subject of extensive discussion and analysis. It has been concluded that the principal hindrances are:

a. Insufficient understanding of what constitutes TCDC and the possibilities it offers;
b. Lack of adequate data and information on capacities existing in developing countries;
c. Lack of commitment as well as inadequate prioritization of TCDC in national policies;
d. Attitudinal and language barriers;
e. Internal procedures not being conducive to TCDC;
f. Financial constraints to meeting cooperation obligations.

In addition, we should always keep in mind that launching activities for this kind of cooperation is not easy, and that the ways and means are still evolving.

CS: *You have often mentioned the need to invigorate TCDC with innovative ideas and approaches. What are some of the innovations that have been realized for the greater promotion and utilization of TCDC?*

AA: The best sources for new ideas and approaches for the enhancement of TCDC are, in my view, the activities developing countries undertake within the spirit and framework of BAPA. As I said, a major constraint is the inadequacy of information on what cooperation goes on in developing countries and what capacities exist. There are many successful and innovative undertakings which are known neither to the UN system nor to developing countries at large. One very important action which has to be expanded and improved is the compilation of information on successful TCDC activities and the specific approaches followed to make them successful. This information should be disseminated and shared widely.

The Special Unit for TCDC tries to capture information on capacities through INRES. It tries to promote the sharing of experiences and new ideas through our subject-specific and sensitization workshops, Cooperation South magazine and other informative publications. We have mounted an intensive information effort, including production of a new video on TCDC and distribution of information kits and a Trainer's Guide. Practically every TCDC activity we support seeks to facilitate the exchange of the best relevant know-how and practices — the technology parks and incubators; the SPARK programme for rural industrialization in China; many training activities for the transfer of skills; the Jaipur Foot Artificial Limb Technology programme; many networking arrangements — all are very innovative examples.

CS: *The TCDC Programming document for UNDP's fifth cycle gives a number of priority areas for attention by TCDC. Does this mean that certain sectors or fields of development are more appropriate for TCDC than others?*

AA: It is possible that some areas might be more amenable to TCDC especially when the undertaking is to share or transfer very specific skills. But the priorities identified for the programming cycle have not been selected for this reason. They were selected mainly because they broadly fall within the areas to which UNDP gives priority. Equally important, they were identified as those in which developing countries have shown great interest as manifested by their requests for assistance. Another consideration is the need to concentrate available and limited resources on fewer areas for greater impact.

There is no doubt that TCDC is the future form of cooperation on which developing countries will largely rely.

CS: *Inadequate resources or lack of financing for TCDC is often cited as one of the main obstacles to its greater use. Is this a false problem inasmuch as TCDC is a modality for development and should be given broader consideration for financing once a decision is made to use it for a particular project or programme?*

AA: That is a very good question. We have to make a distinction between two aspects when we deal with the financing of TCDC. There is no question that developing countries face serious financial constraints in mobilizing foreign exchange to carry out cooperation among themselves. This is particularly true of travel costs. Since TCDC activities are inter-country and very often interregional, mobilizing resources for very specific activities from a diverse group is also not an easy task.

But a disturbing aspect, particularly within the UN system (and that includes UNDP), is a lack of appreciation of the fact that the TCDC modality can be used in any project that is launched with existing and available resources. Similarly, developing countries can use the expertise of institutions in developing countries in the activities that they themselves finance jointly or individually. If we take, for example, a project

financed through UNDP's core resources, the critical decision as far as TCDC is concerned is whether or not that particular project could be developed and implemented by the country concerned using the expertise and facilities available in other developing countries. It is not valid to assume, as happens in many instances both within and outside the UN system, that there is a need for "additional financing" to undertake TCDC activities. Projects are executed, for example, by UN specialized agencies or through national execution. Where feasible, these could be implemented through TCDC, provided priority is given to TCDC. What is important is to consider utilizing the capacities of the South in executing any project regardless of the source of finance. I think financial constraint is sometimes used as an excuse for the failure to make that extra effort to identify and use capacities in developing countries.

CS: *Is TCDC most appropriate within a regional or sub-regional framework where a common language and culture often exist? What is the potential for TCDC at the global and interregional level?*

AA: There are ways of overcoming language constraints. The UN system faces this problem and yet it copes with it adequately through use of interpretation and translation facilities. If a broad base is to be accessed for the exchange of expertise and utilization of the best facilities available in the South, TCDC should be global and interregional insofar as possible. The global and interregional dimensions allow developing countries to access much richer and more diversified capacities and experiences. It is quite obvious that Asia can learn from Latin America, Africa from Asia and vice-versa.

The sub-regional and regional levels also have advantages in terms of cost, proximity and similarities of concerns and relevance regarding solutions.

CS: *What do you see as the future direction for TCDC within the UN development system? Is there a point when the UN's promotion of TCDC will start to show results? How can we know when this will be? What should be the medium and long term role of UNDP as a catalyst for TCDC?*

AA: First of all, we have to recognize that the UN system should only play a role that supports the efforts of developing countries in tapping capacities existing in the South. Unfortunately, for a long time the impression has been perpetuated that the UN system is the main actor in TCDC, relegating developing countries — which are the main players — to a more passive role. UNDP, through the Special Unit for TCDC, and the UN organizations have helped for most of the last decade in an advocacy or promotional role so that the comparative advantage and potentials of TCDC are better known not only within the UN, but also in the developing countries. The achievements by the UN system are significant in this regard. There is still a need to continue the advocacy role until such time as the UN system and the developing countries make more widespread use of TCDC in implementing projects and programmes that are launched on their own or through external assistance.

Nevertheless, both within UN system-supported activities and those being undertaken in developing countries, the application or use of TCDC has not been as widespread as hoped. ECOSOC, the High Level Committee on TCDC and the UN General Assembly have all recognized that, while significant progress has been made in TCDC, the modality is still not applied widely in the implementation of programmes and projects.

This is not to say that there is no progress on the operational side. UNDP, through the Special Unit, has clearly articulated a programme and sub-programmes — in addition to the strategy for TCDC in the 1990s — to gear efforts to focus on use and application. But the system has to do more to encourage the use of TCDC while continuing its catalytic and advocacy support. The advocacy and promotional role will not be needed when the developing countries resort to the TCDC modality as a first option and the UN system routinely considers the use of the TCDC option whenever projects and programmes are being launched and executed. ■

NEWS AND PERSPECTIVES

Amman, Jordan: Making the Most of Technical Assistance

At present, most technical assistance programmes are seriously challenged by mounting development requirements in the face of declining resources. One of the areas in which TCDC may have a comparative advantage as an effective catalyst is in the more effective management of aid coordination. As part of a continuing effort to improve aid management mechanisms, and to enable developing countries to share their experiences in using foreign aid, the Special Unit for TCDC supported a TCDC Regional Workshop on Resource Mobilization through Effective Aid Coordination and Management in Amman, Jordan from 23 to 25 January 1994.

The workshop provided a three-day forum for discussion and an exchange of views and information. The goal was to make a wide ranging assessment of the existing aid coordination and management mechanisms in the Arab countries and to develop a synthesis of actual practices and experience. Representatives of 12 Arab countries were joined by participants from countries outside the Arab region, including Chile, Malawi and Turkey. This diverse representation enabled the meeting to review examples of comparative practices and experiences in coordinating and managing external aid. The workshop also provided the opportunity to assess the use of TCDC as a modality for exchanging specific skills and technical know-how related to aid coordination and management among countries of the Arab region. It concluded with specific recommendations for effective ways and means of improving capacity building for planning, coordination, management and monitoring of external aid activities in the Arab region.

Hangzhou, China: Mobilizing Science and Technology for Rural Development

An interregional symposium on the SPARK Programme in the Peoples' Republic of China was held from 4 to 8 April 1994 in Hangzhou, Zhejiang Province. The Programme stimulates rural development through the introduction of science and technology. The thrust of the symposium was the sharing of the experience of China and the invited countries in efforts to industrialize rural areas and arrest urban migration. Papers on different experiences that explored ways to bring about rural development through the use of science and technology and the establishment of enterprises were presented by Brazil, Fiji, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Pakistan and the Philippines.

The workshop was attended by 26 participants from 18 developing countries. Issues discussed included: articulation of clear policies and political commitment to address the needs of rural populations; mobilization of financial resources; training to assure efficiency and sustainability; the establishment of enterprises; and establishment of a system of motivation and incentives for achievements in the SPARK Programme.

Africa: Capacities and Needs Matching Exercises

One of the most effective promotional measures for the expansion of TCDC in recent years has been the TCDC capacities and needs matching exercise. The African region has hosted five of these activities, most recently in Uganda, Nigeria and Zimbabwe.

Uganda hosted consultations in the industry and supportive services sectors in Kampala, from 13 to 17 December 1993. Participants came from China, Egypt, Ghana, India, Indonesia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Turkey, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

One hundred twenty-nine projects were agreed upon for implementation under the TCDC modality. Uganda offered 18 capacities to four countries while it received 82 capacities from 11 countries. Over 85 per cent of the proposals covered training and study tours in various fields. Three joint venture projects were agreed, between Uganda and Egypt, Ghana and Pakistan. The successful completion of these TCDC

consultations represented a major accomplishment for Uganda in progress towards steady economic development.

Nigeria's capacities and needs matching exercise was held in Abuja from 31 January to 4 February and focused on agriculture, industry and technology. Twenty-four countries participated in the exercise, during which 280 project proposals were agreed upon. Two hundred seventy-one proposals involved Nigeria and other countries while nine were concluded between other developing countries participating in the exercise. Nigeria offered 74 projects while receiving 197 proposals from other countries. Most of the projects were in agriculture and small-scale energy systems, rural development, banking and food processing.

Zimbabwe hosted a capacities and needs matching exercise in the mining sector in Harare, 25-29 April 1994. Participants attended from Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean and Asia and the Pacific, representing a total of 19 countries. Seventy-two TCDC activities were agreed upon including 42 which involve Zimbabwe's offering institutional support to other developing countries. The activities are in the fields of geology, small-scale mining and mineral processing.

Freetown, Sierra Leone:
TCDC Interregional Development Conference

An important step to strengthen South-South dialogue among African NGOs was taken at the TCDC Interregional Development Conference held in Freetown, Sierra Leone, 21-25 March.

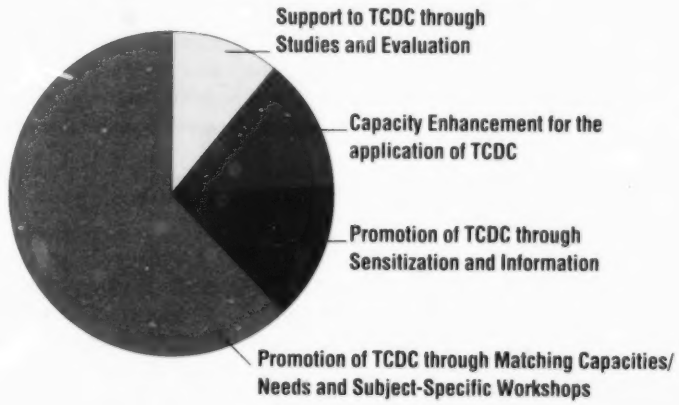
The conference brought together board chairpersons, programme directors, financial officers and resource development officers from 13 African affiliates of Opportunities Industrialization Centres International (OIC), an NGO working to promote African industrialization. Delegates exchanged views and experiences, heard from other NGOs operating in Africa and received feedback from numerous participating donor agencies.

One of the highlights of the conference was the reactivation of the Conference of OICs in Africa (COICA), an African regional development organization which aims to foster mutual support and cooperation within and among OIC programmes in Africa. The revitalization of this important institution truly characterized the conference theme, "Empowerment for Institutional Sustainability." ■

Examples of TCDC Activities Supported by SU/TCDC during 1994

Capacity / Needs Matching Exercises - 1994
Food Security & Agriculture
Transport & Communications
Rural Credit & Poverty Alleviation
Fisheries and Aquaculture Management
Mining
Latin America Border Country Cooperation
Subject - Specific Inter-county Workshops - 1994
Resource Mobilization through Aid Coordination/Management
Round Table on Foreign Investment
Communications & Information Networking
Water Management Technologies
Postal Legislation/Re-structuring
R/D Application/Commercialization
African Asian Developent Forum
SIDS/TAP Consultations
Inter-African NGO Workshop on Capacity-Building
Food Production and Processing Technologies
Inter-University Cooperation
Pacific Basin Partnership Consultation
Networking in Rural Development
Andean Women Technology & Food Security Contest
Watershed Management

Distribution of TCDC 5th Cycle Subprogrammes


Support to TCDC through Studies and Evaluation
Capacity Enhancement for the application of TCDC
Promotion of TCDC through Sensitization and Information
Promotion of TCDC through Matching Capacities/ Needs and Subject-Specific Workshops

tcdc-inres
Matching needs with technology training expertise
If you are seeking a development partner, or if you would like to offer the services of your agency or company to another developing country, contact the TCDC-INRES database Special Unit for TCDC, PO Box 1800, GCS, New York, NY 10163-1800, USA. Tel: (212) 906-5140
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Special Unit for TCDC
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One UN Plaza
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October 1994

To Cooperation South Readers:

You may have noticed that no issues of Cooperation South magazine have been published this year. With the arrival of a new Director in our Special Unit for TCDC the magazine is currently under review. A decision regarding its future is expected shortly.

Meanwhile, we have produced this special issue containing reports on TCDC that may be of interest to you. We will keep your name on our maining list in the event that the magazine resumes publication.